

1 **Evolutionary origins of abnormally large shoot sodium accumulation in non-saline**
2 **environments within the Caryophyllales**

3
4 Philip J. White^{1,2}, Helen C. Bowen³, Martin R. Broadley⁴, Hamed A. El-Serehy⁵, Konrad
5 Neugebauer^{1,4}, Anna Taylor¹, Jacqueline A. Thompson¹, Gladys Wright¹

6
7 ¹The James Hutton Institute, Invergowrie, Dundee, DD2 5DA, UK
8 ²Distinguished Scientist Fellowship Program, King Saud University, Riyadh 11451, Saudi
9 Arabia
10 ³Warwick HRI, University of Warwick, Wellesbourne, Warwick CV35 9EF, UK
11 ⁴Plant and Crop Sciences Division, University of Nottingham, Sutton Bonington,
12 Loughborough LE12 5RD, UK
13 ⁵Zoology Department, College of Science, King Saud University, Riyadh 11451, Saudi Arabia

14
15 Corresponding author:
16 Professor Philip J. White, Ecological Sciences Group, The James Hutton Institute,
17 Invergowrie, Dundee, DD2 5DA, UK. Tel: +44 (0)1382 560043 Email:
18 philip.white@hutton.ac.uk

19

20 Word Count: Introduction	1,485
21 Word Count: Materials and Methods	1,324
22 Word Count: Results	1,284
23 Word Count: Discussion	1,322
24 Word Count: Acknowledgements	102
25 Word Count: Total for Text	5,517
26 Number of Figures	3 (one in colour)
27 Number of Tables	1
28 Supporting Information	2 Tables

29
30 **Heading:** Evolution of extraordinary sodium accumulation in the Caryophyllales.
31 **Twitter:** Philip White@Plant_Ionome2

Summary

• The prevalence of sodium (Na) “hyperaccumulator” species, which exhibit abnormally large shoot sodium concentrations ($[Na]_{shoot}$) when grown in non-saline environments, was investigated among angiosperms in general and within the Caryophyllales order in particular.

• Shoot Na concentrations were determined in 334 angiosperm species, representing 35 orders, grown hydroponically in a non-saline solution.

• Many Caryophyllales species exhibited abnormally large $[Na]_{shoot}$ when grown hydroponically in a non-saline solution. The bimodal distribution of the log-normal $[Na]_{shoot}$ of species within the Caryophyllales suggested at least two distinct $[Na]_{shoot}$ phenotypes within this order. Mapping the trait of Na-hyperaccumulation onto the phylogenetic relationships between Caryophyllales families, and between subfamilies within the Amaranthaceae, suggested that the trait evolved several times within this order: in an ancestor of the Aizoaceae, but not the Phytolaccaceae or Nyctaginaceae, in ancestors of several lineages formerly classified as Chenopodiaceae, but not in the Amaranthaceae *sensu stricto*, and in ancestors of species within the Cactaceae, Portulacaceae, Plumbaginaceae, Tamaricaceae and Polygonaceae.

• In conclusion, a disproportionate number of Caryophyllales species behave as Na-hyperaccumulators and multiple evolutionary origins of this trait can be identified within this order.

Key words: Aizoaceae, Amaranthaceae, Caryophyllales, halophyte, hyperaccumulation, phylogeny, shoot, sodium (Na).

57 **Introduction**

58

59 Sodium (Na) is not considered to be an essential element for plants (White & Brown 2010)
60 although it is required (in micronutrient quantities) for the C₄ photosynthetic pathway
61 (Cheeseman, 2015) and some halophytes (euhalophytes) grow better when supplied Na
62 (Greenway & Munns, 1980; Albert, 1982; Flowers & Colmer, 2008; Munns & Tester, 2008;
63 Rozema & Schat, 2013). In addition, in some environments, for example where there is low
64 K⁺ phytoavailability, plant growth can benefit from a source of Na since Na⁺ can replace K⁺ as
65 a cationic osmoticum in the vacuole (White, 2013). The accumulation of excessive Na
66 concentrations in plant tissues is, however, detrimental to plant growth since Na⁺ interferes
67 with metabolism in the cytoplasm, mitochondria and plastids (Flowers *et al.*, 2015).

68 It is estimated that >6% of the world's land, and 5-15% of the world's agricultural
69 land, is adversely affected by its Na concentration through either salinity or sodicity (Munns
70 & Tester, 2008). Saline soils are generally dominated by NaCl, although there are often
71 significant concentrations of Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, SO₄²⁻ and CO₃²⁻. They are defined as having <15% of
72 their exchangeable cations as Na⁺ and soil solutions with electrical conductivity (EC_e) >2 dS
73 m⁻¹ in a saturated paste extract, which equates to a NaCl concentration of 20 mM, and pH
74 <8.5. Sodic (alkali) soils are generally dominated by Na₂CO₃ and are defined as having >15%
75 of their exchangeable cations as Na⁺ and soil solutions with EC_e >2 dS m⁻¹ and pH >8.5 in a
76 saturated paste extract. Saline-sodic soils have >15% of their exchangeable cations as Na⁺
77 and soil solutions with EC_e >2 dS m⁻¹ and pH <8.5 in a saturated paste extract.

78 Halophytes are generally defined as plants that inhabit saline environments or that
79 complete their life cycles in the presence of large concentrations of ions (≥ 200 mM), most
80 commonly NaCl, in the root-zone (Flowers & Colmer, 2008). They can be further classified
81 into miohalophytes, which exhibit maximal growth in non-saline environments, and
82 euhalophytes, which exhibit maximal growth under saline conditions (Greenway & Munns,
83 1980). Halophytes tolerating EC_e >8.0 dS m⁻¹ measured in a saturated paste extract
84 (approximately 80 mM NaCl) comprise <0.5% of angiosperm species (1,490/352,000
85 species), but are present in at least 33 orders and 110-120 families of flowering plants (The
86 Plant List, 2013; Flowers *et al.*, 2016). It has been suggested that halophytism is an
87 evolutionarily-labile character that has arisen independently in many angiosperm lineages
88 from pre-adapted genotypes (Flowers *et al.*, 2010; Kadereit *et al.*, 2012; Saslis-Lagoudakis *et*

89 *al.*, 2014; Bromham, 2015; Cheeseman, 2015). Families with a large proportion of
90 halophytes (>10% of species in a family) occur in the Alismatales, Brassicales, Caryophyllales,
91 Ericales, Fabales, Malphigiales, Piperales, Poales, Sapindales and Saxifragales (Saslis-
92 Lagoudakis *et al.*, 2014; Flowers *et al.*, 2016).

93 Halophytes can also be grouped into “ionotypes”, which are defined as characteristic
94 ionic features of plant species that are conserved in diverse environments (Albert &
95 Popp, 1977; Gorham *et al.*, 1980; Albert *et al.*, 2000; Flowers & Colmer, 2008; White *et al.*,
96 2012). Commelinid monocots (e.g. Poaceae, Cyperaceae, Juncaceae) are classed as “Na-
97 excluders” and generally exhibit lower shoot Na concentrations ($[Na]_{shoot}$) than other
98 angiosperms growing in the same environment and Na/K quotients less than unity, whilst
99 many eudicots are characterised by comparatively large $[Na]_{shoot}$ and tissue Na/K quotients
100 greater than unity (Albert & Popp, 1977; Gorham *et al.*, 1980; Albert, 1982; Flowers &
101 Colmer, 2008; Yang *et al.*, 2012). Several families in the Caryophyllales (Amaranthaceae
102 [Chenopodioideae], Caryophyllaceae, Tamaricaceae) exhibit exceptionally large $[Na]_{shoot}$ and
103 tissue Na/K quotients when grown in saline environments (Albert & Popp, 1977; Gorham *et al.*
104 *al.*, 1980; Albert, 1982; Flowers & Colmer, 2008; Yang *et al.*, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2012). It has
105 also been observed that some Caryophyllales species have exceptionally large $[Na]_{shoot}$ even
106 when grown in non-saline environments (Collander, 1941; Patel *et al.*, 1980; Glenn &
107 O’Leary, 1984; Broadley *et al.*, 2004). For example, in a phylogenetically-balanced study of
108 the ionomes of 117 angiosperm species belonging to 25 orders grown hydroponically in a
109 non-saline solution containing 0.1 mM Na, it was noted that $[Na]_{shoot}$ varied significantly
110 among eudicot orders ($P < 0.05$) and that three of the seven Caryophyllales species studied
111 had conspicuously large $[Na]_{shoot}$ (Broadley *et al.*, 2004). It has been suggested that Na might
112 have a special role in the biology of euhalophyte Caryophyllales, whose maximal growth
113 requires Na accumulation (Flowers & Colmer, 2008), and that the characteristic ionome of
114 the Caryophyllales might reflect their unusual ecology (White *et al.*, 2015). Although
115 Caryophyllales species can inhabit a variety of biomes worldwide, they comprise a significant
116 proportion of the flora of many deserts (Fahn & Cutler, 1992), coastal regions (Kadereit *et al.*
117 *al.*, 2012), and soils with unbalanced mineral composition for plant nutrition, such as
118 gypseous (Moore *et al.*, 2014) and ultramafic/serpentine (White & Pongrac, 2016) soils.

119 The Caryophyllales order comprises over 11,000 species currently partitioned into
120 about 700 genera and 38 families (The Plant List, 2013; APGIV, 2016). About 5% of species in

121 the Caryophyllales are halophytes and the order contains 35-40% of all known halophytic
 122 angiosperm species (Flowers *et al.*, 2010, 2016; Saslis-Lagoudakis *et al.*, 2014). Of the most
 123 populous families in the Caryophyllales (>50 species) the halophytic character is particularly
 124 prevalent in the Amaranthaceae (17.3% species), Frankeniaceae (16.7% species) and
 125 Tamaricaceae (31.1% species). In contrast to observations on other angiosperm orders, the
 126 halophytic character appears to be rarely lost in Caryophyllales lineages, such as the
 127 Chenopodioideae and Tamaricaceae, once it has evolved (Bromham, 2015). It has been
 128 suggested that the halophytic character might evolve from ancestors with a general
 129 complement of stress-tolerance traits that enable lineages to adapt to a wide range of
 130 environmental challenges (Kadereit *et al.*, 2012; Saslis-Lagoudakis *et al.*, 2014; Bromham,
 131 2015). It is, therefore, noteworthy that the Caryophyllales order contains many succulent
 132 species (Kadereit *et al.*, 2012; Rozema & Schat, 2013), many species that possess salt glands,
 133 which are specialised multicellular structures that excrete salt onto the leaf surface, or
 134 bladder cells, which are modified trichomes that accumulate salt and then burst (Thomson
 135 *et al.*, 1988; Fahn & Cutler, 1992; Salama *et al.*, 1999; Flowers *et al.*, 2010; LoPresti, 2014),
 136 many species exhibiting C₄ and CAM photosynthetic pathways (Silvera *et al.*, 2010; Sage *et al.*,
 137 2011; Kadereit *et al.*, 2012), many species that hyperaccumulate potentially toxic
 138 elements (White & Pongrac, 2016), and many species adapted to arid (Ehleringer *et al.*,
 139 1997) or alkaline (Yang *et al.*, 2012) environments. The C₄ photosynthetic pathway has
 140 evolved many times within the Caryophyllales (Sage *et al.*, 2011) and Kadereit *et al.* (2012)
 141 observed that the rate of gain of the C₄ photosynthetic character was greater in salt tolerant
 142 Chenopodioideae lineages, which they attributed to shared adaptations between C₄
 143 photosynthesis and salt tolerance as part of a wider drought tolerance syndrome. A similar
 144 dependency of the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis with succulence and coastal habitat was
 145 also observed (Kadereit *et al.*, 2012). Crassulacean Acid Metabolism has also evolved many
 146 times within the Caryophyllales and is associated with succulence and other traits enabling
 147 water use efficiency in arid or saline environments (Edwards & Ogburn, 2012).

148 The present study investigated the prevalence of “Na-hyperaccumulator” species,
 149 which exhibit abnormally large [Na]_{shoot} (>4 mg Na g⁻¹ dry matter) when grown in non-saline
 150 conditions (<20 mM Na⁺ in the rhizosphere solution), among the angiosperms in general and
 151 the Caryophyllales in particular. The prevalence of this phenomenon among angiosperms is
 152 currently unknown and this study provides an original insight to its occurrence and

evolutionary origins within the Caryophyllales order. It is observed that only the Caryophyllales species *Atriplex hortensis* L. and *Beta vulgaris* L. of the ten halophytic species studied, representing eight angiosperm orders, behaved as Na-hyperaccumulators when grown in compost. Similarly, when 334 angiosperm species representing 35 angiosperm orders were grown hydroponically in a non-saline solution containing 0.1 mM Na a disproportionate number of Caryophyllales species exhibited abnormally large $[Na]_{shoot}$. The bimodal distribution of the log-normal $[Na]_{shoot}$ of species within the Caryophyllales suggested at least two distinct $[Na]_{shoot}$ phenotypes within this order. Mapping the trait of Na-hyperaccumulation in non-saline environments onto the phylogenetic relationships between Caryophyllales families (Crawley & Hilu, 2012; Hernández-Ledesma *et al.*, 2015; Yang *et al.*, 2015), and between subfamilies within the Amaranthaceae, suggested that the trait had evolved several times within this order: in an ancestor of the Aizoaceae, but not the Phytolaccaceae or Nyctaginaceae, in ancestors of several lineages formerly classified as Chenopodiaceae, but not in the Amaranthaceae *sensu stricto*, and possibly in ancestors of species within the Cactaceae, Portulacaceae, Plumbaginaceae, Tamaricaceae and Polygonaceae. It is possible that the ability to hyperaccumulate Na^+ might benefit plants by providing an alternative osmoticum to K^+ , especially in environments with low K availability (White, 2013). Thus, Na-hyperaccumulation might have served Caryophyllales during their evolution in overcoming the selection pressures associated with the colonisation of arid or saline environments, which require succulence and water conservation (Fahn & Cutler, 1992; Nobel, 2003; Flowers & Colmer, 2008; Kadereit *et al.*, 2012).

Materials and Methods

Responses of halophytic species from different angiosperm orders to salinity

Responses to salinity were studied in ten halophytic species, from eight angiosperm orders, catalogued in the eHALOPH Halophytes Database (Flowers *et al.*, 2016). These comprised: *Ammi visnaga* (L.) Lam. (Apiaceae, Apiales), *Asparagus officinalis* L. (Asparagaceae, Asparagales), *Atriplex hortensis* L. (Amaranthaceae, Caryophyllales), *Beta vulgaris* L. (Amaranthaceae, Caryophyllales), *Casuarina cunninghamiana* Miq. (Casuarinaceae, Fagales),

185 *Colubrina asiatica* (L.) Brongn. (Rhamnaceae, Rosales), *Hibiscus tilliaceus* L. (Malvaceae,
186 Malvales), *Hordeum jubatum* L. (Poaceae, Poales), *Kosteletzkya virginica* (L.) C. Presl ex A.
187 Gray (Malvaceae, Malvales), *Lobularia maritima* (L.) Desv. (Brassicaceae, Brassicales),
188 *Plantago maritima* L. (Plantaginaceae, Lamiales) and *Scaevola crassifolia* Labill.
189 (Goodeniaceae, Asterales). Species were chosen on the basis of their availability from
190 suppliers and their ability to grow in the glasshouse. Seeds of all species were obtained from
191 Chiltern Seeds (Wallingford, UK) except *C. cunninghamiana*, *H. tilliaceus*, *K. virginica* and *P.*
192 *maritima*, which were obtained from Rareexoticseeds (Montreal, Canada), Kenni Koala's
193 Aussie Seed Store (Australia), Floridawildflowers (Crescent City, Florida, USA) and Scotia
194 Seeds (Brecht, UK), respectively. Seeds were germinated in the dark at between 10 °C and
195 25 °C, according to species requirements, on the surface of filter paper moistened with
196 deionised water. Once a radicle was observed, individual seedlings were transplanted to
197 rockwool plugs (2.5 cm by 2.5 cm by 4 cm; Grodan, Hedehusene, Denmark) held in plastic
198 trays in a glasshouse compartment at The James Hutton Institute, Dundee (UK; latitude
199 56°27'26'' N, longitude 3°4'17'' W) in which the experiment was subsequently performed
200 and irrigated with tap water containing 0.14 mM Na. The glasshouse compartment
201 maintained a maximum of 25 °C by day and a minimum of 15 °C at night using automatic
202 venting and supplementary heating.

203 Established seedlings were transferred to pots containing 1 L Levington Professional
204 compost (ICL, Ipswich, UK) prior to the experiment. Two sets of plants, with up to 12
205 replicate plants per species in each set, were exposed to either non-saline or saline
206 irrigation. Plants were irrigated with 100 mL solution per week. Plants receiving the non-
207 saline treatment were irrigated with tap water containing 0.14 mM Na. The experiment was
208 initiated by increasing the NaCl concentration in the irrigation water of the saline treatment
209 to 50 mM for the first week, then 150 mM NaCl for the second week and finally 300 mM for
210 the third week. Plants were harvested on 12th December 2014, three weeks after the first
211 addition of NaCl to the saline irrigation water. The fresh weight (FW) of whole shoots was
212 determined immediately, then samples were dried in an oven at 70 °C to a constant weight
213 and their dry matter (DM) determined. Dried samples were milled to a powder using a ball
214 mill (C + N Laboratory Mill; Christy and Norris Ltd., Chelmsford, UK), digested using HNO₃ in
215 sealed tubes in a microwave oven (MARS Xpress, CEM Corporation, Matthews, NC, USA),
216 cleared using H₂O₂, and analysed for sodium (Na) concentration using inductively coupled

217 plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS; ELAN DRCE, PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA) as
218 described by White *et al.* (2012).

219

220 Phylogenetic effects on shoot sodium concentrations in plants grown hydroponically in a
221 non-saline solution

222

223 Phylogenetic effects on shoot Na concentrations in angiosperm species were assessed by
224 combining data from six glasshouse experiments in which plants were grown hydroponically
225 using a Nutrient Film Technique (NFT) essentially as described by Broadley *et al.* (2003). The
226 final dataset comprised 334 species from 35 orders (Table S1). In all experiments, seeds
227 were germinated in the dark on the surface of filter paper moistened with deionised water
228 at temperatures between 4 °C and 25 °C depending on their requirements. Once a radicle
229 was observed, individual seedlings were transplanted to rockwool plugs (2.5 cm by 2.5 cm
230 by 4 cm; Grodan, Hedehusene, Denmark) held in plastic trays and irrigated with tap water.
231 Plastic trays were either placed in a weaning room at 25 °C or in the glasshouse
232 compartment in which experiments were subsequently performed. Once seedlings were
233 established, the rockwool plugs containing plants were transferred to the NFT system.
234 Whenever possible, two rockwool plugs constituted each replicate and up to six replicates
235 were obtained for each plant species. For experiments at both Warwick-HRI, Wellesbourne
236 (UK; latitude 52°12'18'' N, longitude 1°36'00'' W) and The James Hutton Institute, the
237 glasshouse maintained a maximum of 20 °C by day and a minimum of 15 °C at night using
238 automatic venting and supplementary heating. The recirculating nutrient solution contained
239 2 mM Ca(NO₃)₂, 2 mM NH₄NO₃, 0.75 mM MgSO₄, 0.5 mM KOH, 0.25 mM KH₂PO₄, 0.1 mM
240 FeNaEDTA, 30 µM H₃BO₃, 25 µM CaCl₂, 10 µM MnSO₄, 3 µM CuSO₄, 1 µM ZnSO₄ and 0.5 µM
241 Na₂MoO₄. This was adjusted daily to pH 6, with H₂SO₄, and solutions were replaced
242 completely once or twice each week. Seedlings were harvested during the exponential
243 growth phase, 18-73 days after transfer to the hydroponic system depending upon plant
244 growth rate. Whenever possible, shoots were separated into leaves and stems. The FW of
245 whole shoots or leaves was determined immediately then samples were dried in an oven at
246 70 - 80 °C to a constant weight and their DM determined. Dried samples were milled to a
247 powder using a ball mill, acid digested, and their Na concentrations determined either by
248 inductively coupled plasma emission spectrometry (JY24; Jobin-Yvon, Longjumeau, France)

as described by Broadley *et al.* (2003; Experiments 1-4) or by ICP-MS as described by White *et al.* (2012; Experiments 5 and 6).

Experiment 1, described by Broadley *et al.* (2004), was undertaken in a glasshouse compartment at Warwick-HRI between July and October 2001 to survey calcium (Ca), potassium (K), magnesium (Mg), Na, organic-N and phosphorus (P) concentrations in leaves of a phylogenetically-balanced set of 117 angiosperm species belonging to 25 orders. Experiments 2A, 2B and 2C were undertaken sequentially in a glasshouse compartment at Warwick-HRI between May and November 2003 to survey Ca concentrations in leaves of Magnoliid and monocot orders, with replication at the taxonomic level of the family. Six species representing three Magnoliid orders, 54 species representing eight monocot orders, and nine other angiosperm species were grown in this experiment. Experiment 3, described by White *et al.* (2007), was undertaken in a glasshouse compartment at Warwick-HRI between July and August 2004 to survey selenium (Se) concentrations in leaves of 35 angiosperm species chosen to represent the range of ecological strategies for Se accumulation reported in angiosperms. Experiment 4, described by White *et al.* (2015), was undertaken in a glasshouse compartment at Warwick-HRI between June and August 2004 to survey leaf concentrations of Ca and Mg in as many Caryophyllales families as possible, with replication at the taxonomic level of the genus. Forty-six Caryophyllales species were studied, representing eight families and 29 genera, together with 33 other angiosperm species. Experiment 5 was undertaken in a glasshouse compartment at The James Hutton Institute between July and October 2011 to survey leaf Ca and Mg concentrations in a range of serpentine and non-serpentine plant species. These included 28 Caryophyllales species and 35 other angiosperm species. Experiment 6 was undertaken in a glasshouse compartment at The James Hutton Institute between July and November 2015 to survey leaf Ca and Mg concentrations in a range of Arecaceae species, with replication at the taxonomic level of the genus. Twenty three Arecaceae species were studied, representing six genera, together with 11 other angiosperm species. Each Experiment had several species in common with other Experiments allowing cross comparisons (Table S1). In total, 53 species, representing 22 families and 15 orders, were grown in more than one Experiment.

Statistics

Data are expressed as mean and standard error or standard deviation of the mean of n observations. Statistical differences between treatments were assessed for each species by Student's t -test. Estimates of variation in $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ were assigned between and within orders ($n=35$), families ($n=79$) and species ($n=334$) using analyses of variance (ANOVA). All statistical analyses were performed using R 3.3.0 (R Core Team, 2016) using a linear model of: $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}} \sim \text{Order} + \text{Family} + \text{Species}$.

Results

Ten halophytic angiosperm species were grown in compost in pots that were irrigated with either non-saline or saline solution. The shoot fresh weight (FW) of most of these species did not differ significantly between plants that were irrigated with non-saline and saline solutions (Table 1). However, the shoot FWs of *Asparagus officinalis* ($P=0.0193$) and *Kosteletzkya virginica* ($P=0.0430$) were less in plants irrigated with saline solutions than in those irrigated with non-saline solutions, whereas the shoot FWs of *Atriplex hortensis* ($P=0.0090$) were greater in plants irrigated with a saline solutions than those irrigated with non-saline solutions. Previous studies have also suggested that halophytic *Atriplex* species grow best under slightly saline conditions (Black, 1960; Wallace *et al.*, 1973; Storey & Wyn Jones, 1979; Albert, 1982; Glenn & O'Leary, 1984; Redondo-Gómez *et al.*, 2007; Glenn *et al.*, 2012; Norman *et al.*, 2013).

The response of shoot Na concentration ($[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$) to irrigation with saline solution differed between the species studied, and they could be classified into "Na-excluder", "Na-responder" and "Na-accumulator" species (cf. Baker, 1981). Of the ten angiosperm species studied, four species appeared to exclude Na from their shoot tissues and had small $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when irrigated with either non-saline and saline solutions (Table 1). These "Na-excluder" species were the two monocot species studied, *Hordeum jubatum* (Poales) and *Asparagus officinalis* (Asparagales), *Hibiscus tilliaceous* (Malvales) and *Casuarina cunninghamiana* (Fagales). Five species had relatively small $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when irrigated with non-saline solution but when irrigated with saline solution their $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ increased to more than $10 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$. These "Na-responder" species were *Colubrina asiatica* (Rosales), *Kosteletzkya virginica* (Malvales), *Ammi visnaga* (Apiales), *Lobularia maritima* (Brassicales), *Scaevola crassifolia*

(Asterales) and *Plantago maritima* (Lamiales). The two Caryophyllales species studied, *Beta vulgaris* and *Atriplex hortensis*, both had exceptionally large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when irrigated with non-saline and saline solutions. These species could be designated “Na-accumulator” species.

The constitutively large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ of “Na-accumulator” species could best be distinguished when plants were irrigated with non-saline solutions (Table 1). The distribution of this trait among angiosperms was, therefore, assessed by growing species hydroponically in a solution containing little Na as described by Broadley *et al.* (2003). Data were combined from six individual glasshouse experiments (Table S1). Since little of the variation in $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ (3.4%) could be attributed to environment (i.e. experiment), the $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ for each species was calculated as the arithmetic mean of all experiments in which the species was grown (Table S1). The proportions of the variation in $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ accounted for at the levels of order, family and species were 13.8%, 54.3% and 28.5%, respectively. This suggests that different plant families show distinct $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ concentrations. Families with the largest mean $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ of their constituent species were the Aizoaceae ($24.47 \pm 5.07 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=7$ species), Cactaceae (17.60 , $n=1$ species), Melastomataceae (5.23 , $n=1$ species), Portulacaceae (5.20 ± 4.60 , $n=2$ species), and Ericaceae (4.51 ± 3.89 , $n=2$ species). Three of these families are in the Caryophyllales order.

The $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ differed considerably between angiosperm species grown hydroponically in a non-saline solution (Table S1; Figure 1). Several species had mean $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ greater than $10 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$. These species included nine Caryophyllales species, *Beta vulgaris* (Amaranthaceae; $13.37 \pm 2.35 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=5$ experiments), *Echinofossulocactus* sp. (Cactaceae; $17.60 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=1$ experiment), *Carpanthea pomeridiana* (Aizoaceae; $19.85 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=1$ experiment), *Hereroa odorata* (Aizoaceae; $20.17 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=1$ experiment), *Carpobrotus edulis* (Aizoaceae; $22.76 \pm 3.31 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=2$ experiments), *Atriplex hortensis* (Amaranthaceae; $23.75 \pm 1.01 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=2$ experiments), *Stigmatocarpum criniflorum* (Aizoaceae; $30.81 \pm 3.98 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=3$ experiments), *Mesembryanthemum cordifolium* (Aizoaceae; $37.42 \pm 6.44 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=2$ experiments) and *Dorotheanthus bellidiformis* (Aizoaceae; $40.02 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=1$ experiment), and two other angiosperm species, *Callistemon rigidus* (Myrtaceae, Myrtales; $10.31 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=1$ experiment) and *Gladiolus carneus* (Iridaceae, Asparagales; $10.50 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=1$ experiment).

The distribution of $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ among the angiosperm species studied did not fit a simple normal distribution (Figure 1A) and the log-normal distribution of $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ appeared to comprise the sum of at least three individual log-normal distributions (Figure 2A). The $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ of Caryophyllales species differed by several orders of magnitude, from 0.05 mg g⁻¹ DM in *Lewisia cotyledon* (Montiaceae) to 40.02 mg g⁻¹ DM in *Dorotheanthus bellidiformis* (Aizoaceae). The distribution of $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ among the Caryophyllales appeared to comprise a normal distribution (mean = 0.393, standard deviation = 0.185 mg g⁻¹ DM, $n=42$ species) plus up to 19 species with abnormally large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ (Figure 1B). The low probabilities of these species being part of the normal distribution suggested that there are at least two distinct $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ phenotypes among Caryophyllales species. The species with $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ at the limit for inclusion in the normal distribution were *Plumbago auriculata* ($P=0.0153$, rank #41), *Gomphrena serrata* ($P=0.0106$, rank #42), *Rumex hydrolapathum* ($P=0.0003$, rank #43) and *Limonium sinuatum* ($P=0.0001$, rank #44).

The distribution of log-normal $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ of Caryophyllales species appeared to comprise the sum of two discrete log-normal distributions (Figure 2B). The first log-normal distribution (mean = -0.3717, standard deviation = 0.3299, $n=49$ species) contained 49 species and the second log-normal distribution (mean = 1.246, standard deviation 0.2756, $n=12$ species) contained 12 species (Figure 2B). Since these two log-normal distributions differed significantly ($P<0.0001$), these data suggest that there are at least two distinct $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ phenotypes among Caryophyllales species. Considering the species with log $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ at the extremes of these two distributions, the log $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ of *Psylliostachys suworowi* had a greater probability of being in the first rather than the second log-normal distribution ($P=0.0076$ versus $P=0.0017$), whilst the log $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ of *Spergula arvensis* had a greater probability of being in the second rather than the first log-normal distribution ($P=0.0210$ versus $P=0.0007$). The trait of abnormally large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when plants are grown in non-saline solutions will, henceforth, be termed “Na-hyperaccumulation” and the discrete set of 12 Caryophyllales species with large log $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ were considered to be “Na-hyperaccumulators”.

The evolutionary origin of Na-hyperaccumulation was sought by comparing the number of Na-hyperaccumulator species and the mean $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ in different families of the Caryophyllales (Figure 3). The 12 Caryophyllales species exhibiting Na-hyperaccumulation were distributed across five of the ten Caryophyllales families represented in this study.

However, the trait was most prevalent in the Aizoaceae. Six of the seven Aizoaceae species studied exhibited Na-hyperaccumulation. These six species were among the seven Caryophyllales species with the largest $[Na]_{shoot}$ (Table S1). Consequently, the Aizoaceae had the largest mean $[Na]_{shoot}$ ($24.47 \pm 5.07 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=7$ species) of all the Caryophyllales families. The only Cactaceae species studied, *Echinofossulocactus* sp., also had one of the largest $[Na]_{shoot}$ measured ($17.60 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$, $n=1$ experiment). In addition, two of the twelve Amaranthaceae species studied (*Atriplex hortensis*, *Beta vulgaris*), two of the twenty Caryophyllaceae species studied (*Silene armeria*, *Spergula arvensis*) and one of the two Portulacaceae species studied (*Portulaca grandiflora*) could also be considered Na-hyperaccumulators (Table S1). However, since (1) there were proportionally fewer Na-hyperaccumulator species in these families and (2) the Na-hyperaccumulator species in these families generally had smaller $[Na]_{shoot}$ than the Aizoaceae Na-hyperaccumulator species, their mean $[Na]_{shoot}$ was less than the mean $[Na]_{shoot}$ of the Aizoaceae (Figure 3). No Na-hyperaccumulator species were observed in the Phytolaccaceae, Nyctaginaceae, Montiaceae, Polygonaceae or Plumbaginaceae. Based on the phylogenetic relationships between Caryophyllales families proposed recently (Crawley & Hilu, 2012; Hernández-Ledesma *et al.*, 2015; Yang *et al.*, 2015) and the data from the experiments reported here (Table S1) it appears that the trait of Na-hyperaccumulation might have evolved several times within the Caryophyllales (Figure 3). It is likely that the trait evolved in an ancestor of the Aizoaceae, but not the Phytolaccaceae or Nyctaginaceae. It is possible that the trait also evolved in ancestors of the Cactaceae and Portulacaceae, which are closely related (APGIV, 2016), and in ancestors of the Amaranthaceae and Caryophyllaceae.

Discussion

Angiosperm species can be classified into “Na-excluders”, “Na-responders” and “Na-accumulators” based on relationships between their $[Na]_{shoot}$ and the salinity of the irrigation solution (cf. Baker, 1981). This terminology, originally proposed to categorise the responses of plant species to toxic elements (“heavy metals”) in the environment, also appears valid for Na accumulation, since the accumulation of excessive Na^{+} can be toxic to plants and plant species respond to Na^{+} in their environment either by excluding this cation

or accumulating it safely in their tissues. Only two of the ten halophytic species studied in detail in this paper could be classified as Na-accumulators (Table 1). These were the Caryophyllales species *Atriplex hortensis* and *Beta vulgaris*, which both had exceptionally large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when irrigated with either non-saline or saline solutions. A similar response of $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ to increasing salinity in the root environment has been observed previously for other Caryophyllales species including members of the *Atriplex*, *Salicornia* and *Suaeda* genera (Albert, 1982; Glenn & O'Leary, 1984). However, not all Caryophyllales species exhibit this trait and the response of $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ to increasing salinity in the root environment of, for example, the miohalophytes *Rumex dentatus* and *Limonium perezii* is typical of a Na-excluders whilst the response of $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ to increasing salinity in the root environment of, for example, *Sarcobatus vermiculatus* is reminiscent of Na-responders (Glenn & O'Leary, 1984).

The prevalence of Na-accumulator species, which exhibit abnormally large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when grown under non-saline conditions, was assessed by combining data from six glasshouse experiments in which 334 angiosperm species representing 35 angiosperm orders had been grown hydroponically in a non-saline solution containing 0.1 mM Na for 18-73 days (Table S1). It was observed that a relatively large number of Caryophyllales species exhibited abnormally large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ ($>10 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$) when grown in non-saline solutions (Table S1; Figure 1). The distribution of the log-normal $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ of Caryophyllales species appeared to comprise two discrete log-normal distributions containing 49 and 12 species, respectively (Figure 2), suggesting that there are at least two distinct $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ phenotypes among Caryophyllales species. The $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ distinguishing between these two distributions was about $4 \text{ mg Na g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$.

The ability of plants to accumulate Na when growing in non-saline environments is not considered to be an evolutionary advantage (Cheeseman, 2015). Indeed, it has been suggested that grazing by herbivores has selected for glycophyte species that maintain $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ below about $1\text{-}2 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ (Cheeseman, 2015). Nevertheless, it is possible that the ability to accommodate large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ might be an enabling trait allowing species to adapt to a variety of abiotic environmental challenges. It might confer the ability for osmotic adjustment in environments with low K phytoavailability or contribute to tolerance of arid or saline environments (Flowers & Colmer, 2008; Kadereit *et al.*, 2012; White, 2013). However, it can be observed that the trait of Na-hyperaccumulation within the

441 Caryophyllales is not directly correlated with the expression of either C₄ photosynthesis or
 442 CAM, tissue succulence, halophytism in general, or the euhalophytic trait in particular (Table
 443 S2).

444 The evolutionary origins of the trait of abnormally large shoot Na accumulation
 445 when plants are grown in non-saline solutions, termed “Na-hyperaccumulation”, can be
 446 investigated by mapping this trait on the phylogenetic relationships between Caryophyllales
 447 families (Crawley & Hilu, 2012; Hernández-Ledesma *et al.*, 2015; Yang *et al.*, 2015). All
 448 Aizoaceae species appear to exhibit Na-hyperaccumulation when grown in non-saline
 449 environments (Table S2). Although *Delosperma cooperi* was not classified as a Na-
 450 hyperaccumulator in the present study, it has previously been shown to accumulate >4 mg
 451 Na g⁻¹ DM shoot when grown in a peat substrate (Sunshine Mix #1, SunGro Hort., Bellevue,
 452 Washington) and irrigated with tap water with an EC_e of 0.8 dS m⁻¹ (Niu & Rodriguez, 2006).
 453 In addition to the species studied in the present study, *Galenia pubescens* (Patel *et al.*,
 454 1980), *Galenia secunda* (Glenn & O'Leary, 1984), *Sesuvium portulacastrum* (Ramani *et al.*,
 455 2006; Slama *et al.*, 2008; Rabhi *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2012), *Sesuvium verrucosum* (Glenn
 456 & O'Leary, 1984) and *Tetragonia tetragonioides* (Yousif *et al.*, 2010) have all been reported
 457 to accumulate >4 mg Na g⁻¹ DM shoot when grown under non-saline conditions (Table S2).
 458 In this context, it is noteworthy that many Aizoaceae species possess bladder cells (Thomson
 459 *et al.*, 1988; Flowers *et al.*, 2010).

460 The trait of Na-hyperaccumulation in non-saline environments is less ubiquitously
 461 exhibited by Amaranthaceae species (Table S2 and references therein). However, it is
 462 exhibited by many species formerly classified as Chenopodiaceae. It is exhibited by the
 463 Betoideae, *Beta vulgaris* and *Hablitzia tamnoides*, by some Camphorosmoideae (e.g. *Bassia*
 464 *hyssopifolia* and *Maireana brevifolia*), by many Chenopoidioideae including most, but not
 465 all, *Atriplex* and *Chenopodium* species, by *Corispermum hyssopifolium* and *Corispermum*
 466 *pallasii* subsp. *membranaceum*, by all the Salicornioideae studied, including several
 467 *Salicornia* and *Tecticornia* species, by many Salsoloideae, and all *Suaeda* species (Table S2).
 468 By contrast, the trait is not exhibited by any Amaranthaceae *sensu stricto* (Amaranthoideae,
 469 Gomphrenoideae), with the exception of *Ptilotus polystachyus*. Although many
 470 Amaranthaceae species possess bladder cells or salt glands (Thomson *et al.*, 1988; Fahn &
 471 Cutler, 1992; Flowers *et al.*, 2010; LoPresti, 2014), there does not appear to be a direct

correlation between the presence of salt glands and the ability to hyperaccumulate Na in non-saline environments (Table S2).

Few Caryophyllaceae species had large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when grown hydroponically in non-saline solutions, with only two of the twenty species examined in the present study (*Silene armeria*, *Spergula arvensis*) exhibiting Na-hyperaccumulation (Table S1; Figure 1). This is consistent with previous studies (Sonneveld & Voogt, 1983; Kwon *et al.*, 2005; Heo *et al.*, 2007; Jeong *et al.*, 2014). Several species in the Sarcobataceae (*Sarcobatus vermiculatus*), Portulacaceae (*Portulaca grandiflora*; *Portulaca oleracea*) and Cactaceae (*Carnegiea gigantea*, *Echinocactus grusonii*, *Echinofossulocactus* sp., *Opuntia ficus-indica*) exhibit large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when grown in non-saline environments (Table S2 and references therein). However, it is clear from the literature that not all Cactaceae exhibit large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when grown in non-saline environments (Table S2; Nobel, 2003; Goodman *et al.*, 2012). No species in the Phytolaccaceae, Nyctaginaceae, Montiaceae, Basellaceae or Simmondsiaceae exhibited the trait (Table S2 and references therein).

In the experiments reported here, no Na-hyperaccumulator species were observed in the Plumbaginaceae or Polygonaceae (Table S1; Figure 3). Nevertheless, several species in these families have been reported to accumulate large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when grown in non-saline environments (Table S2 and references therein). In addition, all six species of Tamaricaceae studied to date appear to accumulate large $[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$ when grown in non-saline environments (Patel *et al.*, 1980; Ding *et al.*, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2010; Gorai & Neffati, 2011; Sghaier *et al.*, 2015; Sharif & Khan, 2016). It is, perhaps, noteworthy that many species in the Plumbaginaceae and Tamaricaceae possess salt glands, whilst members of the Polygonaceae do not (Thomson *et al.*, 1988; Fahn & Cutler, 1992; Salama *et al.*, 1999; Flowers *et al.*, 2010). Again, there does not appear to be a direct correlation between the occurrence of salt glands and the ability of a species to hyperaccumulate Na in non-saline environments (Table S2).

In conclusion, phylogenetic relationships between Caryophyllales families suggest that the trait of Na-hyperaccumulation in non-saline environments has evolved several times within this order (Figure 3). The data presented here suggest that the trait evolved in an ancestor of the Aizoaceae, but not the Phytolaccaceae or Nyctaginaceae. It is also likely that the trait also evolved in an ancestor of species formerly classified as Chenopodiaceae (subfamilies Betoideae, Chenopodioideae, Camphorosmoideae, Salsoloideae,

Salicornioideae, Suaedoideae), but not the Amaranthaceae *sensu stricto* (subfamilies Amaranthoideae, Gomphrenoideae). In addition, it is possible that the trait evolved in ancestors of the Sarcobataceae, Portulacaceae, Cactaceae, Tamaricaceae, Plumbaginaceae, and Polygonaceae, but further studies are required to explore these hypotheses. Future studies should focus on elucidating the evolutionary origin of Na-hyperaccumulation in non-saline environments (1) among species formerly classified as Chenopodiaceae, (2) among species in the Cactaceae and Portulacaceae, which are currently underrepresented in published studies, and (3) among species in the Plumbaginaceae, Tamaricaceae and Polygonaceae, to determine the extent of the trait in these families.

Acknowledgements. This work was supported by the Rural and Environment Science and Analytical Services Division (RESAS) of the Scottish Government (P.J.W., A.T., J.A.T., G.W.), the Distinguished Scientist Fellowship Program of King Saud University (P.J.W., H.A.E-S), and a University of Nottingham / James Hutton Institute Postgraduate Studentship (K.N.). We thank Emily Farley and Emma Shaw for their assistance with the original experiments as Undergraduate Vacation Scholars funded by The Rank Prize Funds and The Nuffield Foundation, respectively. We thank Dr Paula Pongrac for her comments on the original manuscript and Professor John Raven for interesting discussions on the evolution of carbon concentrating mechanisms.

Contributions of Authors. P.J.W., M.R.B. and H.A.E-S designed the study. H.C.B., A.T., J.A.T. and G.W conducted the experiments. P.J.W., M.R.B. and K.N. compiled and analysed the data. The manuscript was drafted by P.J.W. with contributions from all other authors.

References

Albert R. 1982. Halophyten. In: Kinzel H, ed. *Pflanzenökologie und Mineralstoffwechsel*. Stuttgart, Germany: Eugen Ulmer, 33-215.

Albert R, Pfundner G, Hertenberger G, Kastenbauer T, Watzka M. 2000. The physiotype approach to understanding halophytes and xerophytes. In: Breckle S-W, Schweizer B,

- 536 Arndt U, eds. *Ergebnisse weltweiter ökologischer Forschung*. Stuttgart, Germany:
537 Verlag Günter Heimbach, 69-87.
- 538 **Albert R, Popp M. 1977.** Chemical composition of halophytes from the Neusiedler Lake
539 Region in Austria. *Oecologia* **27**: 157-170.
- 540 **Angiosperm Phylogeny Group IV [APGIV]. 2016.** An update of the Angiosperm Phylogeny
541 Group classification for the orders and families of flowering plants: APG IV. *Botanical*
542 *Journal of the Linnean Society* **181**: 1-20.
- 543 **Baker AJM. 1981.** Accumulators and excluders – strategies in the response of plants to
544 heavy metals. *Journal of Plant Nutrition* **3**: 643-654.
- 545 **Black RF. 1960.** Effects of NaCl on the ion uptake and growth of *Atriplex vesicaria* Heward.
546 *Australian Journal of Biological Science* **13**: 249-266.
- 547 **Broadley MR, Bowen HC, Cotterill HL, Hammond JP, Meacham MC, Mead A, White PJ.**
548 **2003.** Variation in the shoot calcium content of angiosperms. *Journal of Experimental*
549 *Botany* **54**: 1431-1446.
- 550 **Broadley MR, Bowen HC, Cotterill HL, Hammond JP, Meacham MC, Mead A, White PJ.**
551 **2004.** Phylogenetic variation in the shoot mineral concentration of angiosperms.
552 *Journal of Experimental Botany* **55**: 321-336.
- 553 **Bromham L. 2015.** Macroevolutionary patterns of salt tolerance in angiosperms. *Annals of*
554 *Botany* **115**: 333-341.
- 555 **Cheeseman JM. 2015.** The evolution of halophytes, glycophytes and crops, and its
556 implications for food security under saline conditions. *New Phytologist* **206**: 557-570.
- 557 **Collander R. 1941.** Selective absorption of cations by higher plants. *Plant Physiology* **16**:
558 691-720.
- 559 **Crawley SS, Hilu KW. 2012.** Caryophyllales: Evaluating phylogenetic signal in *trnK* intron
560 versus *matK*. *Journal of Systematics and Evolution* **50**: 387-410.
- 561 **Ding X, Tian C, Zhang S, Song J, Zhang F, Mi G, Feng G. 2010.** Effects of NO₃⁻-N on the
562 growth and salinity tolerance of *Tamarix laxa* Willd. *Plant and Soil* **331**: 57-67.
- 563 **Edwards EJ, Ogburn RM. 2012.** Angiosperm responses to a low-CO₂ world: CAM and C₄
564 photosynthesis as parallel evolutionary trajectories. *International Journal of Plant*
565 *Sciences* **173**: 724-733.
- 566 **Ehleringer JR, Cerling TE, Helliker BR. 1997.** C₄ photosynthesis, atmospheric CO₂, and
567 climate. *Oecologia* **112**: 285-299.

- 568 **Fahn A, Cutler DF. 1992.** *Xerophytes*. Berlin: Gebrüder Borntraeger.
- 569 **Flowers TJ, Colmer TD. 2008.** Salinity tolerance in halophytes. *New Phytologist* **179**: 945-
570 963.
- 571 **Flowers TJ, Galal HK, Bromham L. 2010.** Evolution of halophytes: Multiple origins of salt
572 tolerance in land plants. *Functional Plant Biology* **37**: 604-612.
- 573 **Flowers TJ, Munns R, Colmer TD. 2015.** Sodium chloride toxicity and the cellular basis of salt
574 tolerance in halophytes. *Annals of Botany* **115**: 419-431.
- 575 **Flowers T, Santos J, Jahns M, Warburton B, Reed P. 2016.** eHALOPH – Halophytes
576 Database. University of Sussex, UK. <https://www.sussex.ac.uk/affiliates/halophytes/>
577 [accessed 1 August 2016]
- 578 **Glenn EP, O’Leary JW. 1984.** Relationship between salt accumulation and water content of
579 dicotyledonous halophytes. *Plant, Cell and Environment* **7**: 253-261.
- 580 **Glenn EP, Nelson SG, Ambrose B, Martinez R, Soliz D, Pabendinskas V, Hultine K. 2012.**
581 Comparison of salinity tolerance of three *Atriplex* spp. in well-watered and drying
582 soils. *Environmental and Experimental Botany* **83**: 62-72.
- 583 **Goodman J, Maschinski J, Hughes P, McAuliffe J, Roncal J, Powell D, Sternberg LO. 2012.**
584 Differential response to soil salinity in endangered key tree cactus: implications for
585 survival in a changing climate. *PLoS ONE* **7**: e32528.
- 586 **Gorai M, Neffati M. 2011.** Osmotic adjustment, water relations and growth attributes of the
587 xero-halophyte *Reaumuria vermiculata* L. (Tamaricaceae) in response to salt stress.
588 *Acta Physiologiae Plantarum* **33**: 1425-1433.
- 589 **Gorham J, Hughes LL, Wyn Jones RG. 1980.** Chemical composition of salt marsh plants from
590 Ynys-Mon (Anglesey): The concepts of physiotypes. *Plant, Cell and Environment* **3**:
591 309-318.
- 592 **Greenway H, Munns R. 1980.** Mechanisms of salt tolerance in nonhalophytes. *Annual*
593 *Review of Plant Physiology* **31**: 149-190.
- 594 **Heo EJ, Jung HH, Kim KS. 2007.** Response of *Dianthus japonicus* Thunb. to NaCl stress
595 imposed at different growth stages. *Horticulture, Environment, and Biotechnology*
596 **48**: 381-386.
- 597 **Hernández-Ledesma P, Berendsohn WG, Borsch T, von Mering S, Akhani H, Arias S,**
598 **Castaña-Noa I, Eggli U, Eriksson R, Flores-Plvera H et al. 2015.** A taxonomic

- 599 backbone for the global synthesis of species diversity in the angiosperm order
600 Caryophyllales. *Willdenowia* **45**: 281-383.
- 601 **Jeong J-H, Kim S, Lee J-H, Choi W-Y, Lee K-B, Cho K-M. 2014.** Germination and growth
602 response of *Spergularia marina* Griseb by salt concentration. *Korean Journal of Crop*
603 *Science* **59**: 139-143.
- 604 **Kadereit G, Ackerly D, Pirie MD. 2012.** A broader model for C4 photosynthesis evolution in
605 plants inferred from the goosefoot family (Chenopodiaceae s.s.). *Proceedings of the*
606 *Royal Society Series B: Biological Sciences* **279**: 3304-3311.
- 607 **Kwon OK, Kim YA, Kim KS, Shin HK. 2005.** Growth and ion balance of carnation under salt
608 stress. *Journal of the Korean Society for Horticultural Science* **46**: 38-384.
- 609 **Li W, Khan A, Zhang X, Liu X. 2010.** Rooting and shoot growth of stem cuttings of saltcedar
610 (*Tamarix chinensis* Lour) under salt stress. *Pakistan Journal of Botany* **42**: 4133-4142.
- 611 **LoPresti EF. 2014.** Chenopod salt bladders deter insect herbivores. *Oecologia* **174**: 921-930.
- 612 **Moore MJ, Mota JF, Douglas NA, Olvera HF, Ochoterena H. 2014.** The ecology, assembly
613 and evolution of gypsophile floras. In: Rajakaruna N, Boyd RS, Harris TB, eds. *Plant*
614 *ecology and evolution in harsh environments*, Hauppauge, NY, USA, Nova Science
615 Publishers, 97-128.
- 616 **Munns R, Tester M. 2008.** Mechanisms of salinity tolerance. *Annual Review of Plant Biology*
617 **59**: 651-681.
- 618 **Niu G, Rodriguez DS. 2006.** Relative salt tolerance of selected herbaceous perennials and
619 groundcovers. *Scientia Horticulturae* **110**: 352-358.
- 620 **Nobel PS. 2003.** *Environmental biology of agaves and cacti*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge
621 University Press.
- 622 **Norman HC, Masters DG, Barrett-Lennard EG. 2013.** Halophytes as forages in saline
623 landscapes: Interactions between plant genotype and environment change their
624 feeding value to ruminants. *Environmental and Experimental Botany* **92**: 96-109.
- 625 **Patel PM, Wallace A, Romney EM, Alexander GV. 1980.** A Collander-type experiment in
626 large tanks of solution culture. *Journal of Plant Nutrition* **2**: 127-133.
- 627 **R Core Team. 2016.** R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Version 3.3.0.
628 R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. <http://www.R-project.org/>

- 629 **Rabhi M, Castagna A, Remorini D, Scattino C, Smaoui A, Ranieri A, Abdelly C. 2012.**
630 Photosynthetic responses to salinity in two obligate halophytes: *Sesuvium*
631 *portulacastrum* and *Tecticornia indica*. *South African Journal of Botany* **79**: 39-47.
- 632 **Ramani B, Reeck T, Debez A, Stelzer R, Huchzermeyer B, Schmidt A, Papenbrock J. 2006.**
633 *Aster tripolium* L. and *Sesuvium portulacastrum* L.: two halophytes, two strategies to
634 survive in saline habitats. *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry* **44**: 395-408.
- 635 **Redondo-Gómez S, Mateos-Naranjo E, Davy AJ, Fernández-Muñoz F, Castellanos EM,**
636 **Luque T, Figueroa ME. 2007.** Growth and photosynthetic responses to salinity of the
637 salt-marsh shrub *Atriplex portulacoides*. *Annals of Botany* **100**: 555-563.
- 638 **Rozema J, Schat H. 2013.** Salt tolerance of halophytes, research questions reviewed in the
639 perspective of saline agriculture. *Environmental and Experimental Botany* **92**: 83-95.
- 640 **Sage RF, Christin P-A, Edwards EJ. 2011.** The C4 plant lineages of planet earth. *Journal of*
641 *Experimental Botany* **62**: 3155-3169.
- 642 **Salama FM, El-Naggar SM, Ramadan T. 1999.** Salt glands of some halophytes in Egypt.
643 *Phyton* **39**: 91-165.
- 644 **Saslis-Lagoudakis CH, Moray L, Bromham L. 2014.** Evolution of salt tolerance in
645 angiosperms: A phylogenetic approach. In: Rajakaruna N, Boyd RS, Harris TB, eds.
646 *Plant ecology and evolution in harsh environments*, Hauppauge, NY, USA, Nova
647 Science Publishers, 77-95.
- 648 **Sghaier DB, Duarte B, Bankaji I, Caçador I, Sleimi N. 2015.** Growth, chlorophyll fluorescence
649 and mineral nutrition in the halophyte *Tamarix gallica* cultivated in combined stress
650 conditions: Arsenic and NaCl. *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology*
651 **149**: 204-214.
- 652 **Sharif F, Khan AU. 2016.** Effect of salinity on tissue nutrient contents of the four dryland
653 tree species of Indus flood plains. *Arid Land Research and Management* **30**: 65-78.
- 654 **Silvera K, Neubig KM, Whitten WM, Williams NH, Winter K, Cushman JC. 2010.** Evolution
655 along the Crassulacean acid metabolism continuum. *Functional Plant Biology* **37**:
656 995-1010.
- 657 **Slama I, Ghnaya T, Messedi D, Hessini K, Labidi N, Savoure A, Abdelly C. 2007.** Effect of
658 sodium chloride on the response of the halophyte species *Sesuvium portulacastrum*
659 grown in mannitol-induced water stress. *Journal of Plant Research* **120**: 291-299.

- 660 **Sonneveld C, Voogt W. 1983.** Studies on the salt tolerance of some flower crops grown
661 under glass. *Plant and Soil* **74**: 41-52.
- 662 **Storey R, Wyn Jones RG. 1979.** Responses of *Atriplex spongiosa* and *Suaeda monoica* to
663 salinity. *Plant Physiology* **63**: 156-162.
- 664 **The Plant List. 2013.** The Plant List. Version 1.1. <http://www.theplantlist.org/> [accessed 1
665 August 2016].
- 666 **Thomson WW, Faraday CD, Oross JW. 1988.** Salt glands. In: Baker DA, Hall JL, eds. *Solute*
667 *transport in plant cells and tissues*. Harlow, UK: Longman Scientific and Technical,
668 498-537.
- 669 **Wallace A, Mueller RT, Romney EM. 1973.** Sodium relations in desert plants: 2. Distribution
670 of cations in plant parts of three different species of *Atriplex*. *Soil Science* **115**: 390-
671 394.
- 672 **Wang D, Wang H, Han B, Wang B, Guo A, Liu C Chang L, Peng M, Wang X. 2012.** Sodium
673 instead of potassium and chloride is an important macronutrient to improve leaf
674 succulence and shoot development for halophyte *Sesuvium portulacastrum*. *Plant*
675 *Physiology and Biochemistry* **51**: 53-62.
- 676 **White PJ. 2013.** Improving potassium acquisition and utilisation by crop plants. *Journal of*
677 *Plant Nutrition and Soil Science* **176**: 305-316.
- 678 **White PJ, Brown PH. 2010.** Plant nutrition for sustainable development and global health.
679 *Annals of Botany* **105**: 1073-1080.
- 680 **White PJ, Pongrac P. 2016.** Heavy metal toxicity in plants. In: Shabala S, ed. *Plant stress*
681 *physiology*, second edition, Wallingford, UK: CABI, 301-332.
- 682 **White PJ, Bowen HC, Marshall B, Broadley MR. 2007.** Extraordinarily high leaf selenium to
683 sulphur ratios define 'Se-accumulator' plants. *Annals of Botany* **100**: 111-118.
- 684 **White PJ, Broadley MR, Thompson JA, McNicol JW, Crawley MJ, Poulton PR, Johnston AE.**
685 **2012.** Testing the distinctness of shoot ionomes of angiosperm families using the
686 Rothamsted Park Grass Continuous Hay Experiment. *New Phytologist* **196**: 101-109.
- 687 **White PJ, Bowen HC, Farley E, Shaw EK, Thompson JA, Wright G, Broadley MR. 2015.**
688 Phylogenetic effects on shoot magnesium concentration. *Crop and Pasture Science*
689 **66**: 1241-1248.
- 690 **Yang C, Zheng S, Huang H, Liu Z, Zheng W, Liu B, Shi D. 2012.** Comparison of osmotic
691 adjustment and ion balance strategies in nineteen alkali-tolerant halophyte species

692 during adaptation to salt-alkalinized habitats in northeast China. *Australian Journal*
693 *of Crop Science* **6**: 141-148.

694 **Yang Y, Moore MJ, Brockington SF, Soltis DE, Wong GK-S, Carpenter EJ, Zhang Y, Chen L,**
695 **Yan Z, Xie Y et al. 2015.** Dissecting molecular evolution in the highly diverse plant
696 clade Caryophyllales using transcriptome sequencing. *Molecular Biology and*
697 *Evolution* **32**: 2001-2014.

698 **Yousif BS, Nguyen NT, Fukuda Y, Hakata H, Okamoto Y, Masaoka Y, Saneoka H. 2010.**
699 Effect of salinity on growth, mineral composition, photosynthesis and water relations
700 of two vegetable crops; New Zealand spinach (*Tetragonia tetragonioides*) and water
701 spinach (*Ipomoea aquatica*). *International Journal of Agriculture and Biology* **12**: 211-
702 216.

703 **Zhang S-B, Zhang J-L, Slik JWF, Cao K-F. 2012.** Leaf element concentrations of terrestrial
704 plants across China are influenced by taxonomy and the environment. *Global*
705 *Ecology and Biogeography* **21**: 809-818.

706

707

708 **Supporting Information**

709

710 Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

711

712 **Table S1** Shoot sodium concentrations in 334 species from 35 angiosperm orders grown
713 hydroponically in a non-saline solution containing 0.1 mM Na⁺ in at least one of six
714 glasshouse experiments.

715

716 **Table S2** Occurrence of sodium (Na)-hyperaccumulator species, having shoot Na
717 concentrations >4 mg g⁻¹ dry matter when grown in non-saline environments, within the
718 Caryophyllales order, together with their halophytic and photosynthetic characteristics.

719

Table

Table 1 Shoot fresh weight, dry matter (DM) and sodium concentration ($[Na]_{shoot}$) of ten halophytic angiosperm species grown in pots irrigated with either 100 mL non-saline (0.14 mM Na) or saline (50-300 mM Na) solution per week. The experiment was initiated by increasing the NaCl concentration in the irrigation water of the saline treatment to 50 mM for the first week, then 150 mM NaCl for the second week, and finally 300 mM for the third week. Plants were harvested three weeks after the first addition of NaCl to the saline irrigation water. Data are expressed as mean \pm standard error of the mean of n observations.

Treatment	Species	Family	Order	Fresh Weight (g)	Dry Matter (g)	$[Na]_{shoot}$ (mg g ⁻¹ DM)
Non-saline	<i>Hordeum jubatum</i> L.	Poaceae	Poales	4.66 \pm 2.24 (n=3)	0.43 \pm 0.33 (n=3)	0.21 \pm 0.02 (n=3)
Non-saline	<i>Asparagus officinalis</i> L.	Asparagaceae	Asparagales	6.36 \pm 0.75 (n=10)	0.74 \pm 0.18 (n=10)	0.38 \pm 0.05 (n=10)
Non-saline	<i>Hibiscus tiliaceus</i> L.	Malvaceae	Malvales	2.87 (n=1)	0.19 (n=1)	0.69 (n=1)
Non-saline	<i>Colubrina asiatica</i> (L.) Brogn.	Rhamnaceae	Rosales	1.47 \pm 0.17 (n=2)	0.056 \pm 0.003 (n=2)	0.73 \pm 0.15 (n=2)
Non-saline	<i>Casuarina cunninghamiana</i> Miq.	Casuarinaceae	Fagales	0.90 \pm 0.20 (n=2)	0.045 \pm 0.010 (n=2)	1.03 \pm 0.24 (n=2)
Non-saline	<i>Kosteletzkya virginica</i> (L.) C. Presl ex A. Gray	Malvaceae	Malvales	22.69 \pm 3.75 (n=9)	2.09 \pm 0.63 (n=9)	1.62 \pm 0.13 (n=9)
Non-saline	<i>Ammi visnaga</i> (L.) Lam.	Apiaceae	Apiales	22.56 \pm 1.52 (n=8)	2.13 \pm 0.18 (n=8)	2.16 \pm 0.11 (n=8)
Non-saline	<i>Lobularia maritima</i> (L.) Desv.	Brassicaceae	Brassicales	20.45 \pm 8.68 (n=4)	1.10 \pm 0.58 (n=4)	3.40 \pm 0.27 (n=4)
Non-saline	<i>Scaevola crassifolia</i> Labill.	Goodeniaceae	Asterales	49.53 \pm 3.92 (n=4)	4.09 \pm 0.27 (n=4)	3.78 \pm 0.46 (n=4)
Non-saline	<i>Plantago maritima</i> L.	Plantaginaceae	Lamiales	3.32 \pm 0.52 (n=12)	0.053 \pm 0.001 (n=12)	4.11 \pm 0.33 (n=12)
Non-saline	<i>Beta vulgaris</i> L.	Amaranthaceae	Caryophyllales	38.95 \pm 7.28 (n=6)	2.46 \pm 0.63 (n=6)	10.72 \pm 1.03 (n=6)
Non-saline	<i>Atriplex hortensis</i> L.	Amaranthaceae	Caryophyllales	28.18 \pm 1.52 (n=7)	4.18 \pm 0.47 (n=7)	12.02 \pm 0.49 (n=7)
Saline	<i>Hordeum jubatum</i> L.	Poaceae	Poales	2.52 \pm 0.86 (n=2)	0.13 \pm 0.07 (n=2)	2.18 \pm 0.27 (n=2)
Saline	<i>Asparagus officinalis</i> L.	Asparagaceae	Asparagales	4.11 \pm 0.66 (n=9)	0.36 \pm 0.15 (n=9)	2.66 \pm 0.97 (n=9)
Saline	<i>Hibiscus tiliaceus</i> L.	Malvaceae	Malvales	3.36 (n=1)	0.17 (n=1)	4.10 (n=1)
Saline	<i>Colubrina asiatica</i> (L.) Brogn.	Rhamnaceae	Rosales	1.19 \pm 0.36 (n=2)	0.054 \pm 0.003 (n=2)	16.73 \pm 10.32 (n=2)
Saline	<i>Casuarina cunninghamiana</i> Miq.	Casuarinaceae	Fagales	0.53 (n=1)	0.060 (n=1)	3.62 (n=1)
Saline	<i>Kosteletzkya virginica</i> (L.) C. Presl ex A. Gray	Malvaceae	Malvales	15.02 \pm 1.58 (n=9)	1.66 \pm 0.26 (n=9)	13.60 \pm 0.94 (n=9)
Saline	<i>Ammi visnaga</i> (L.) Lam.	Apiaceae	Apiales	20.38 \pm 1.65 (n=8)	1.96 \pm 0.22 (n=8)	17.83 \pm 1.14 (n=8)
Saline	<i>Lobularia maritima</i> (L.) Desv.	Brassicaceae	Brassicales	9.54 \pm 1.75 (n=4)	0.49 \pm 0.18 (n=4)	27.94 \pm 2.30 (n=4)
Saline	<i>Scaevola crassifolia</i> Labill.	Goodeniaceae	Asterales	41.70 \pm 9.77 (n=4)	3.41 \pm 0.97 (n=4)	19.41 \pm 1.97 (n=4)
Saline	<i>Plantago maritima</i> L.	Plantaginaceae	Lamiales	2.47 \pm 0.37 (n=12)	0.052 \pm 0.002 (n=12)	27.49 \pm 1.01 (n=12)
Saline	<i>Beta vulgaris</i> L.	Amaranthaceae	Caryophyllales	35.72 \pm 8.90 (n=6)	2.27 \pm 0.60 (n=6)	28.08 \pm 3.29 (n=5)
Saline	<i>Atriplex hortensis</i> L.	Amaranthaceae	Caryophyllales	32.99 \pm 0.57 (n=6)	5.04 \pm 0.24 (n=6)	35.70 \pm 3.45 (n=3)

Figure Legends

Figure 1 Frequency distributions of mean shoot sodium (Na) concentrations in **(a)** 334 species from 35 angiosperm orders or **(b)** 61 species from ten Caryophyllales families grown hydroponically in a non-saline solution. Shoot Na concentrations $>10 \text{ mg Na g}^{-1}$ dry matter are designated “more”. The solid line indicates the normal (mean = 0.393, standard deviation = $0.185 \text{ mg Na g}^{-1}$ dry matter, $n = 42$ species) distribution fitted to data from the 42 Caryophyllales species with the smallest shoot Na concentrations.

Figure 2 Frequency distributions of log-normal mean shoot sodium (Na) concentrations in **(a)** 334 species from 35 angiosperm orders or **(b)** 61 species from ten Caryophyllales families grown hydroponically in a non-saline solution. The solid line indicates two log-normal distributions (first: mean = -0.3717, standard deviation = 0.3299, $n = 49$ species; second: mean = 1.246, standard deviation 0.2756, $n = 12$ species) fitted to data from the 49 Caryophyllales species with the smallest leaf Na concentrations and the 12 Caryophyllales species with the largest leaf Na concentrations, respectively.

Figure 3 Phylogenetic relationships between ten families of the Caryophyllales, based on the phylogeny derived by Crawley & Hilu (2012), and their shoot sodium concentrations ($[\text{Na}]_{\text{shoot}}$). The number of species hyperaccumulating Na (numerator) and the number of species surveyed (denominator) are indicated in parentheses. Families with species expressing the trait of Na-hyperaccumulation are highlighted in yellow and Families without species expressing the trait of Na-hyperaccumulation are highlighted in blue. Data are expressed as mean values with capped lines indicating the standard error of the mean of species surveyed.

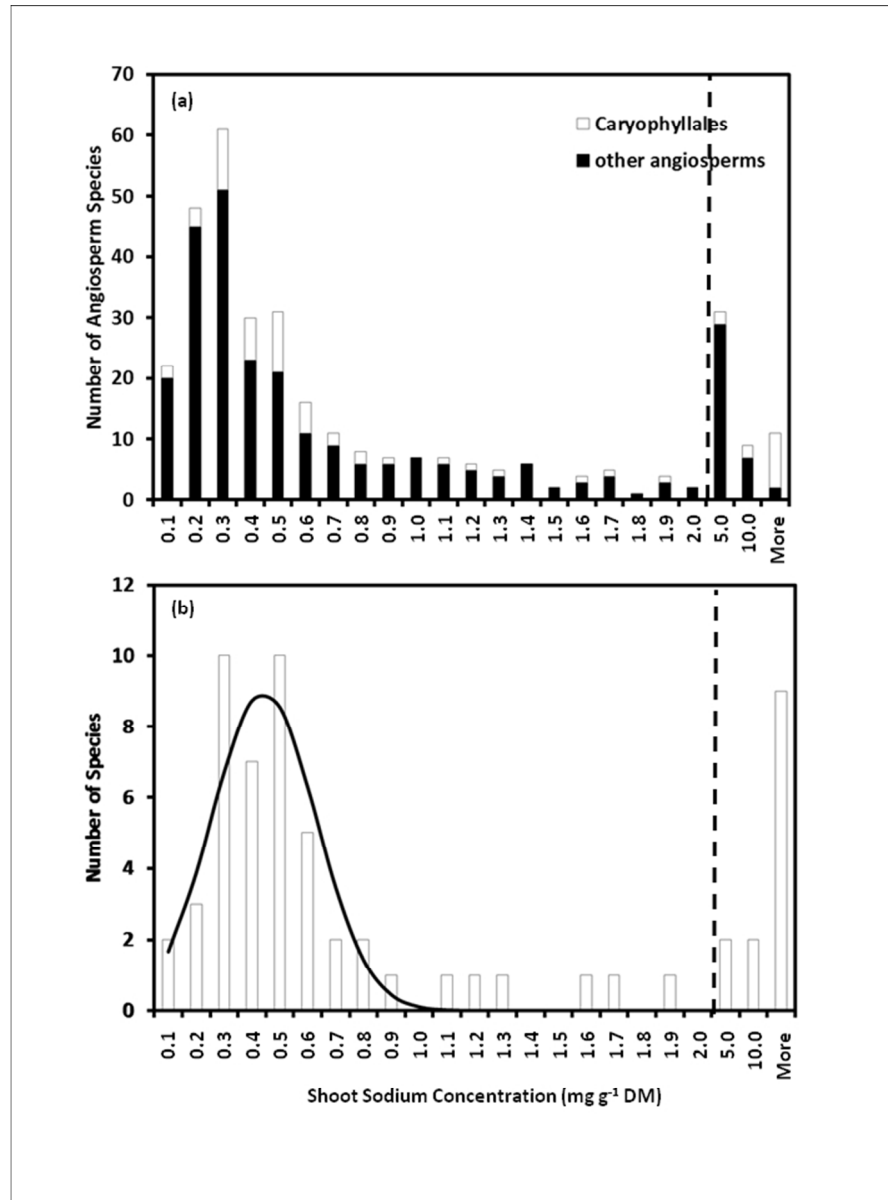


Figure 1 Frequency distributions of mean shoot sodium (Na) concentrations in (a) 334 species from 35 angiosperm orders or (b) 61 species from ten Caryophyllales families grown hydroponically in a non-saline solution. Shoot Na concentrations >10 mg Na g⁻¹ dry matter are designated "more". The solid line indicates the normal (mean = 0.393, standard deviation = 0.185 mg Na g⁻¹ dry matter, n = 42 species) distribution fitted to data from the 42 Caryophyllales species with the smallest shoot Na concentrations.

Fig. 1

120x162mm (150 x 150 DPI)

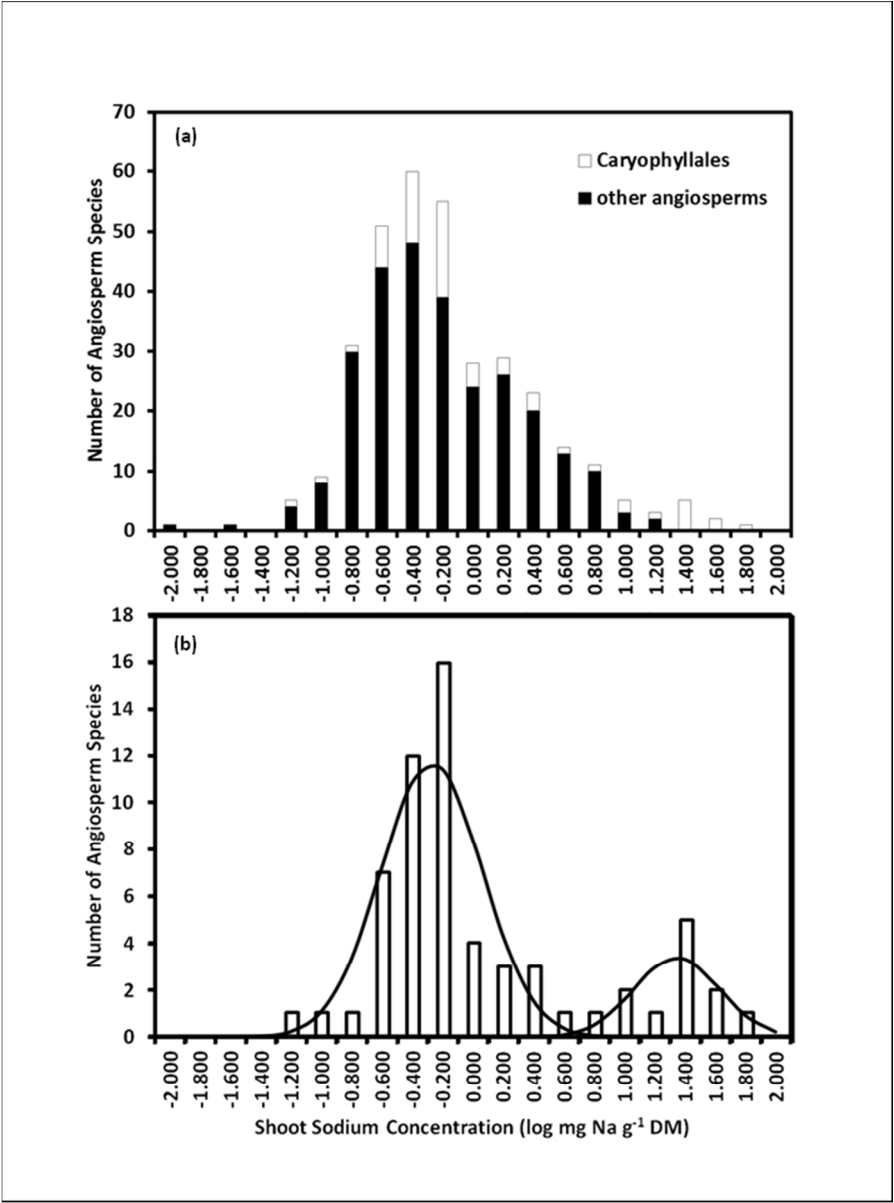


Figure 2 Frequency distributions of log-normal mean shoot sodium (Na) concentrations in (a) 334 species from 35 angiosperm orders or (b) 61 species from ten Caryophyllales families grown hydroponically in a non-saline solution. The solid line indicates two log-normal distributions (first: mean = -0.3717, standard deviation = 0.3299, n = 49 species; second: mean = 1.246, standard deviation 0.2756, n = 12 species) fitted to data from the 49 Caryophyllales species with the smallest leaf Na concentrations and the 12 Caryophyllales species with the largest leaf Na concentrations, respectively.

Fig. 2
120x162mm (150 x 150 DPI)

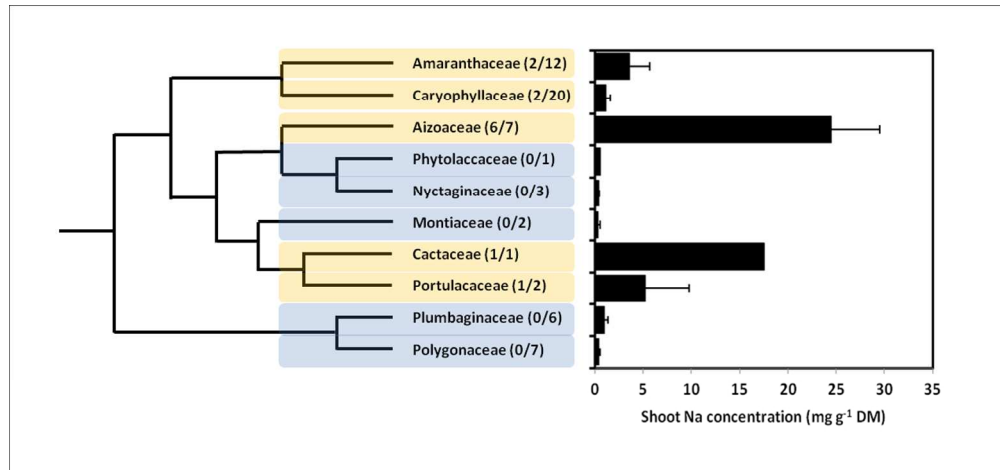


Figure 3 Phylogenetic relationships between ten families of the Caryophyllales based on Crawley & Hilu (2012) and their shoot sodium concentrations ([Na]shoot). The number of species hyperaccumulating Na (numerator) and the number of species surveyed (denominator) are indicated in parentheses. Data are expressed as mean values with capped lines indicating the standard error of the mean of species surveyed.

Fig. 3

215x101mm (150 x 150 DPI)

Figure 1

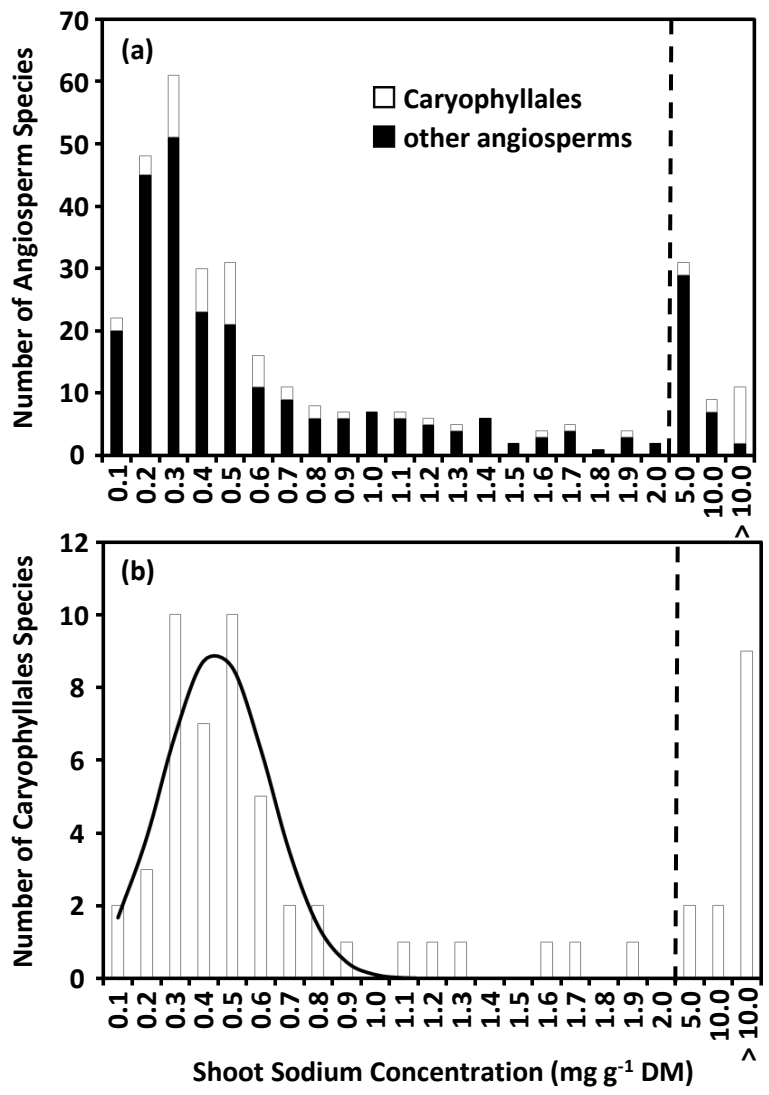


Figure 2

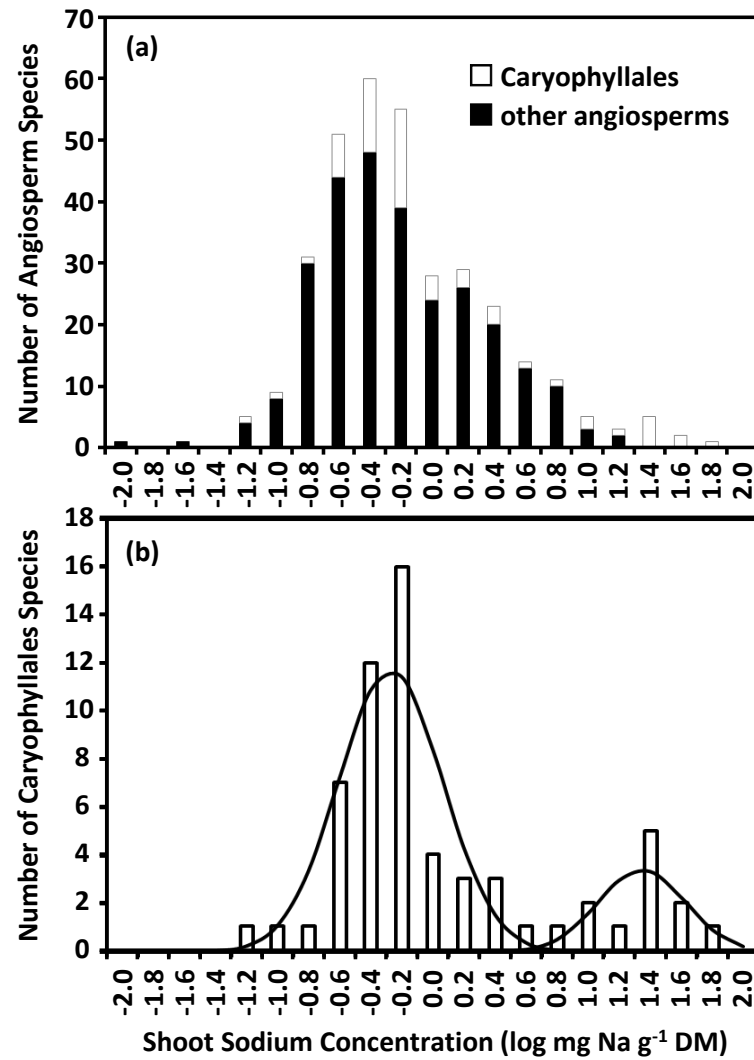


Figure 3

